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ISSN 0038-3872

SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA ACADEMY OF SCIENCES

BULLETIN

Volume 108 **Number 3**

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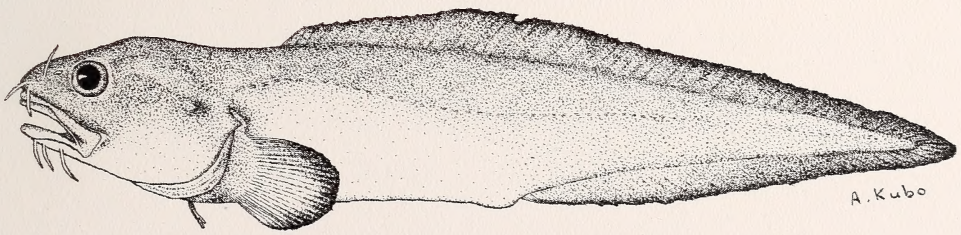

BCAS-A108(3) 137–167 (2009) **December 2009**

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Date of this issue 23 November 2009

This paper meets the requirements of ANSI/NISO Z39.48-1992 (Permanence of Paper).

Annual Meeting of the Southern California Academy of Sciences

California State University, Los Angeles May 7–8, 2010

FIRST CALL FOR SYMPOSIA AND PAPERS

The Southern California Academy of Sciences will hold its annual Meeting for 2010 on the campus of California State University, Los Angeles on Friday and Saturday May 7–8.

Presently the following symposia are in the planning stages. If you would like to organize a Symposia for this meeting, or have suggestions for a symposia topic, please contact John Roberts at jroberts@csudh.edu. Organizers should have a list of participants and a plan for reaching the targeted audience.

Note: Abstracts will be due on April 6, 2010. Check our web page for further information (http://scas.jsd.claremont.edu/)

Proposed Symposia for 2010

Coastal Sage Scrub Restoration and Fire: organized by Ann Dalkey (adalkey@pvplc.org)

Sustainable Fisheries: organized by Mark Helvey (Mark.Helvey@noaa.gov)

Bar-Coding of Species: organized by M. James Allen (jima@sscwrp.org)

Jellyfish Biomechanics: organized by Julie Kalman (julianne,Kalman@lacity.org)

Reef Biology: organized by Bob Grove (grovers@sce.com) and Dan Pondella (pondella@oxy.edu

Microbial Diversity: organized by Graciela Brelles-Marino (gbrelles@csupomona.edu)

Center for Ocean Science Education Excellence: organized by Linda Chilton (bob Grove as contact at grovers@sce.com)

Marine Spatial Planning: organized by Lisa Gilbane (lag1000@gmail.com)

Southern California Archaeology: organized by Andrea Murray (apmurray@pasadena.edu)

Contributed papers: Sessions of Contributed Papers will occur both days.

Contributed Papers and Posters: Both professionals and students are welcome to submit abstracts for a paper or poster in any area of science. Abstracts are required for all papers, as well as posters, and must be submitted in the format listed on the society webpage. Maximum poster size is 36 × 48 inches.

In addition **Junior Academy members (Research Training Program)** will submit papers for Saturday sessions.

Abstracts of presented papers and posters will be published as a supplement to the August 2010 issue of the Bulletin.

Student Awards: Students who elect to participate are eligible for best paper or poster awards in the following categories: ecology and evolution, molecular biology,genetics and physiology, and physical sciences. In addition the American Institute of Fishery Research Biologists will award best paper and poster in fisheries biology. A paper by any combination of student and professional co-authors will be considered eligible provided that it represents work done principally by student(s). In the case of an award to a co-authored paper, the monetary award and a one year student membership to the Academy will be made to the first author only.

Bull. Southern California Acad. Sci.
108(3), 2009, pp. 137–151
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Activities and Catch Composition of Artisanal Elasmobranch Fishing Sites on the Eastern Coast of Baja California Sur, Mexico

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Abstract.—Eighty–three artisanal fishing sites were documented from seasonal surveys of the Gulf of California coast of Baja California Sur conducted during El Niño (1998) and La Niña (1999) conditions. The direct targeting of elasmobranchs was observed at approximately half (48.2%) of these sites. Sharks numerically dominated sampled landings (71.3%, n = 693), and exceeded those of batoids during all seasons. Among the primary species in observed landings were the scalloped hammerhead, *Sphyrna lewini* (15.2%, n =148), Pacific angel shark, *Squatina californica* (11.6%, n = 113), blue shark, *Prionace glauca* (11.4%, n = 111), Pacific sharpnose shark, *Rhizoprionodon longurio* (11.3%, n = 110), and pygmy devil ray, *Mobula munkiana* (8.6%, n = 84).

Increasing concern regarding the status and sustainability of elasmobranch populations in Mexican waters has prompted the development of a federal management plan and underscored the need for fundamental information on targeted species (DOF 2007). Improved management of Mexican elasmobranch fisheries has been hampered, in part, by a lack of detailed quantitative information on the location and activities of artisanal fishing sites, species composition of landings, and basic life history information of targeted species (Castillo–Geniz et al. 1998; Márquez–Farías 2002). This type of data has recently been provided for two of the four states bordering on the Gulf of California (Sonora, Bizzarro et al. 2009; Baja California, Smith et al. 2009), one of Mexico's most important regions in terms of elasmobranch and overall fisheries production (CONAPESCA 2003). However, similar information from Baja California Sur is lacking.

Elasmobranchs landings averaged 2.9% of total fishery production in Baja California Sur during 1998–2003, the most recent available time series. Total landings during this period ranged from 3628–5459 t (CONAPESCA 2003). Elasmobranch landings from Baja California Sur comprised 12.1% of national production during 2003 and averaged 12.8% of national production during 1998–2003. Sharks, especially "tiburón" (sharks > 1.5 m total length), comprised the majority of reported landings, with rays contributing an average of 26.3% by weight during 1998–2003 (CONAPESCA 2003).

To improve the understanding, conservation, and management of exploited shark and ray populations in the western Gulf of California (GOC), a two–year study was

undertaken during 1998–1999 to describe the extent and activities of the Baja California Sur artisanal elasmobranch fishery. Specific objectives of this project were to: 1) determine the locations and activities of elasmobranch fishing sites in Baja California Sur; 2) determine species composition of elasmobranchs from these sites, and 3) provide baseline biological information (size composition, sex ratio, reproductive status) for the primary species in landings.

Study Site Information

Bordered by the Pacific Ocean to the west and south and the GOC to the east (Figure 1), mainland Baja California Sur contains 2,705 km^2 of coastline, the most of any Mexican state (INEGI 2007). Thirteen major offshore islands occur off the central and southern GOC coast of Baja California Sur (Lindsay 1983). Coastal and insular shelves and terraces are absent or diminished in most regions of coastal Baja California Sur, with the notable exception of Bahía Concepción and Bahía La Paz. Outside these regions, the shelf is generally rocky and narrow (~ 5–10 km), with a sharp shelf break at approximately 200 m (Maluf 1983). Within and adjacent to these embayments, the coastal regions are composed primarily of sandy substrates. Extremely deep water (> 1000 m) occurs within 20 km off the southeastern part of the state (Dauphin and Ness 1991). The only river on the Baja California Peninsula, the Rio Santa Rosalía, flows into the GOC at the town of Mulege, creating estuarine conditions.

Baja California Sur is one of Mexico's most important states in terms of fishery production, accounting for 10.9% of landings and 5.4% of revenues according to the latest available data (CONAPESCA 2003). These totals ranked third and seventh, respectively, among Mexican states. The most important fishery resources in Baja California Sur were, in order of descending landings during 1998–2003: sardines, squids, and tunas (CONAPESCA 2003). In addition, Baja California Sur is the main source of abalone, clam, and lobster production. The primary fishery ports in Baja California Sur are Puerto San Carlos, on the Pacific coast, and La Paz, Loreto, and Santa Rosalía on the GOC coast.

Materials and Methods

Seasonal surveys of artisanal fishing sites located in Baja California Sur were conducted during 1998–1999, a time period that included both El Niño and La Niña oceanographic conditions (Schwing et al., 2002). Data were collected specifically from January 9–February 21, March 23–May 16, September 9–November 15, 1998, and January 15–February 25, March 3–May 15, June 2–29, September 11–November 13, 1999. Time spent at each camp was typically less than one day and most camps were visited sporadically within and among seasons. Seasons were defined as follows: spring (March–May), summer (June–August), autumn (September–November), and winter (December–February).

Locations of fishing sites were determined from maps, local knowledge of fishing activity, and exploration. Once located, the exact position of each site was determined with a handheld Global Positioning System unit. At each site, artisanal fishing vessels ("pangas"), typically 5.5–7.6 m long, open-hulled fiberglass boats with outboard motors of 55–115 hp, were sampled and fishermen were interviewed to determine fishery targets, elasmobranch species composition, fishing locations, gear types, ex-vessel prices, and markets. All references to mesh size of gillnets indicate stretched mesh size (the distance between knots when the mesh is pulled taut). Type of fishing site (A = little to no

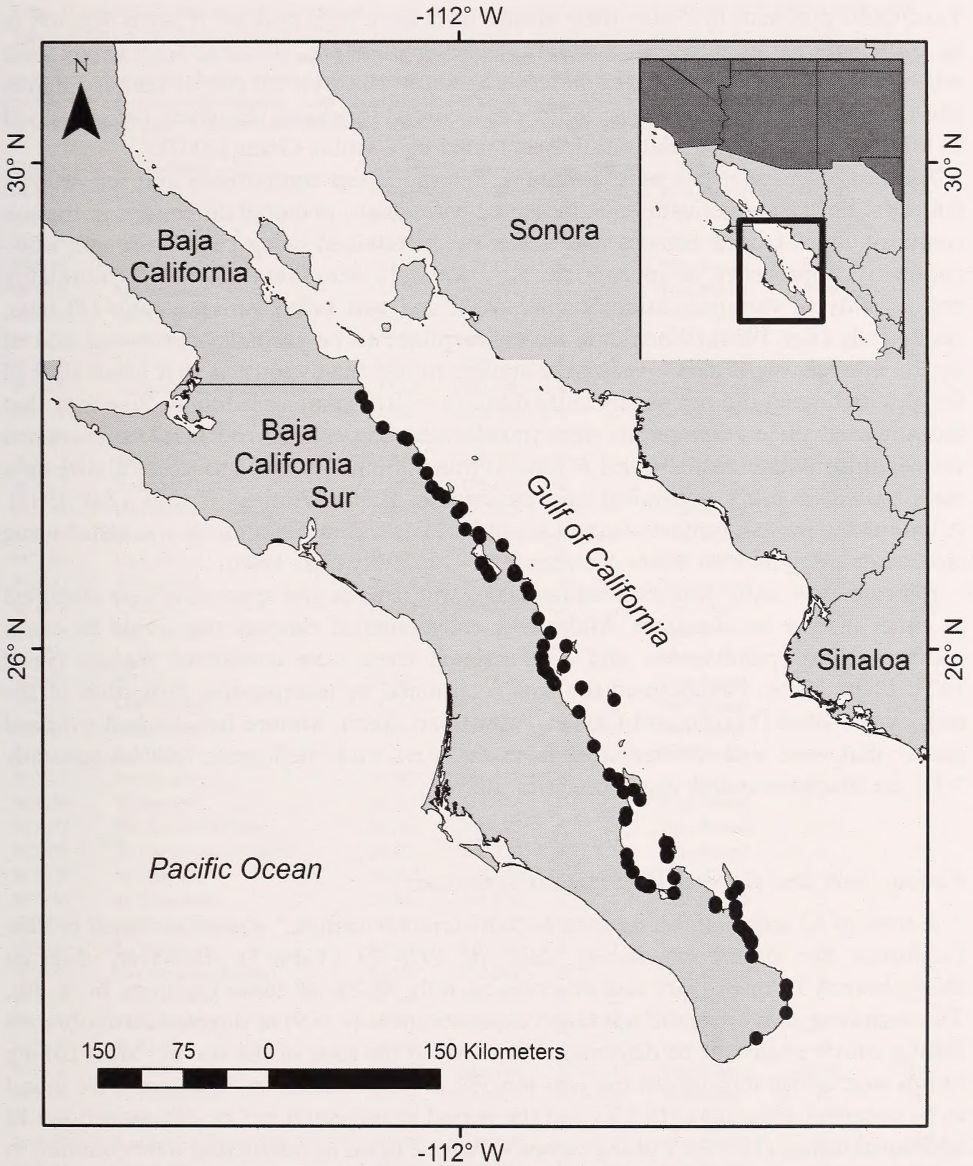

Fig. 1. Study site of Baja California Sur in northwestern Mexico. Artisanal fishing camp locations are depicted with black dots.

infrastructure, B = moderate infrastructure, C = significant infrastructure), permanence (1 = permanent, 2 = seasonal), period of activity, and number of active pangas were recorded for each site.

Elasmobranch landings were identified to lowest possible taxonomic level, enumerated, sexed, and measured whenever possible. Gymnurid rays (i.e., *Gymnura crebripunctata*, *G. marmorata*) and sharks of the genus *Mustelus* (i.e., *M. albipinnis*, *M. californicus*, *M. dorsalis*, *M. lunulatus*) were grouped into species complexes (i.e., *Gymnura* spp., *Mustelus* spp.) because of taxonomic confusion within these genera during the time of surveys.

Taxonomic problems involving these groups have since been resolved (Castro–Aguirre et al. 2005; Smith et al. in press). Standard measurements (e.g., stretched total length, disc width) were consistently recorded on linear axes to the nearest 1.0 cm for sampled sharks and rays whenever possible. Disc width was recorded for skates (Rajidae), but converted to total length using the relationships estimated by Castillo–Géniz (2007).

All measured specimens were utilized to determine size composition and sex ratio of landings. For all species with $\geq$ 50 measured individuals, potential differences in the size composition of landed females and males were examined using parametric and non–parametric approaches, as appropriate. Raw size data were first evaluated for normality and equality of variances using Shapiro–Wilk and two–tailed variance ratio (F) tests, respectively (Zar 1999). When data were determined to be normally distributed and of equal variance, two–tailed t–tests were applied to test the hypothesis that mean sizes of females and males did not significantly differ ($\alpha = 0.05$) among landings. Size data that did not meet these assumptions were transformed (log, square root) and re–examined with Shapiro Wilk and two–tailed F–tests. If transformations were unsuccessful, size data were evaluated using two–tailed non–parametric Mann–Whitney U tests (Zar 1999). Additionally, the assumption of equal sex ratios (1:1) within the landings was tested using chi–square analysis with Yates correction for continuity (Zar 1999).

Reproductive status was assessed for males and females and specimens were classified as either mature or immature. Males with fully calcified claspers that could be easily rotated, coiled epididymides, and differentiated testes were considered mature (Pratt 1979; Ebert 2005). Female maturity was determined by macroscopic inspection of the ovaries and uteri (Martin and Cailliet 1988; Ebert 2005). Mature females had oviducal glands that were well–differentiated from the uteri, and vitellogenic follicles generally >1.0 cm diameter and/or egg capsules in utero.

Results

Fishing Sites and General Fishery Characteristics

A total of 83 artisanal fishing sites, broadly termed "camps," was documented in Baja California Sur during 85 survey days in 1998–99 (Table 1). However, directed elasmobranch fishing effort was observed at only 48.2% of these locations (n = 40). The remaining sites either did not target elasmobranchs (n = 9) or directed elasmobranch fishing efforts could not be determined (n = 34) at the time of the survey. Most fishing camps were active throughout the year (66.3%, n = 55). However, 15 camps were found to be occupied seasonally (18.1%) and the period of use could not be determined for 13 additional camps (15.7%). Fishing camps with little to no infrastructure were common in BCS (45.8%, n = 38). Lacking electricity or sources for water, fishermen from nearby towns or cities (e.g. La Paz, Loreto) lived at and fished from such camps for extended periods. Fishing camps were typically established in remote locations, including islands (e.g., BCS–45, BCS–46). Thirty (36.1%) of the surveyed sites contained moderate infrastructure. Artisanal fishing activities were also observed in association with cities or larger towns (e.g., BCS–20, BCS–71, BCS–77). The number of active pangas ranged from one at several camps to approximately 450 at BCS–77, and varied seasonally. Camps or landing sites that exclusively targeted elasmobranchs were rarely observed. Fishing sites were principally nearshore for small coastal sharks and rays, and offshore (to distances of 60 km) for large pelagic sharks.

Artisanal fisheries identified along the eastern coast of Baja California Sur were diverse and highly opportunistic. Activities, targets, and gear use changed seasonally within

Table 1. Descriptive information for all artisanal fishing camps documented in Baja California Sur (BCS) during 1998-1999. Type = A (little to no infrastructure), B (moderate infrastructure), and C (significant infrastructure); Perm. (Permanence) = 1 (permanent) and 2 (seasonal); Active = period of fishing activity; #Pangas = number or range of operational artisanal fishing vessels at the time of survey(s); Elasmo. (elasmobranchs targeted) = Yes (elasmobranchs were targeted during the year) and No (there was no directed fishery for elasmobranchs). Zero values listed for #Pangas indicate that the camp was temporarily inactive (because of weather, holidays, etc.) or seasonally abandoned at the time of survey. In all instances, U = unknown.

Camp Code	Camp Name	Latitude	Longitude	Type	Perm.	Active	#Pangas	Elasmo.
BCS-01	La Playa	23.054	-109.671	C	1	Year-Round	11-171	No
BCS-02	La Playa II	23.247	-109.437	A	2	Oct-Feb	2	U
BCS-03	Los Frailes	23.389	-109.439	A	2	Sep-Apr	17-80	Yes
BCS-04	La Ribera	23.454	-109.433	B	1	Year-Round	13-50	No
BCS-05	Los Barriles	23.675	-109.707	C	1	Year-Round	0-80	No
BCS-06	Las Pilitas	23.771	-109.710	A	2	Nov-Jun	1	Yes
BCS-07	Punta Pescadero	23.791	-109.708	A	1	Year-Round	4-5	U
BCS-08	La Tina	23.817	-109.730	B	1	Year-Round	1-4	U
BCS-09	San Javier (Los Algodones)	23.832	-109.736	B	1	Year-Round	1-2	Yes
BCS-10	El Cardonal	23.843	-109.743	B	2	6 Months	3-5	Yes
BCS-11	La Linea	23.866	-109.766	B	1	Year-Round	1	U
BCS-12	San Isidro	23.894	-109.789	B	1	Year-Round	1-4	Yes
BCS-13	Boca del Alamo	23.901	-109.805	B	1	Year-Round	6-12	Yes
BCS-14	Ensenada de Los Muertos	23.997	-109.831	B	1	Year-Round	3	Yes
BCS-15	Punta Arenas	24.051	-109.834	B	1	Year-Round	3-40	Yes
BCS-16	La Ventana	24.051	-109.992	B	1	Year-Round	7-8	Yes
BCS-17	El Sargento	24.079	-109.992	U	1	Year-Round	11-150	U
BCS-18	Canechica	24.149	-109.864	A	2	Nov-Jun	3	Yes
BCS-19	La Loberita	24.197	-109.815	A	1	Year-Round	2	Yes
BCS-20	La Paz	24.152	-110.317	C	1	Year-Round	8-20	Yes
BCS-21	El Quelele	24.203	-110.508	A	1	Year-Round	1	U
BCS-22	Los Rodriguez	24.205	-110.536	B	1	Year-Round	3	U
BCS-23	Punta Leon	24.218	-110.566	A	1	Year-Round	1-2	Yes
BCS-24	Las Pacas	24.228	-110.577	B	1	Year-Round	4-6	U
BCS-25	Pichilingue	24.267	-110.317	B	2	U	11	U
BCS-26	El Sauzoso	24.311	-110.641	U	1	Year-Round	3	No
BCS-27	San Juan de la Costa	24.381	-110.683	A	1	Year-Round	2-4	Yes
BCS-28	La Cueva de San Gabriel	24.427	-110.370	A	1	Year-Round	1	U
BCS-29	El Saladito	24.443	-110.688	U	U	U	0-2	Yes
BCS-30	El Empachado	24.446	-110.374	A	1	Year-Round	1	U
BCS-31	La Cueva Cropola	24.447	-110.367	B	1	Year-Round	2	Yes
BCS-32	La Partida	24.531	-110.368	B	1	Year-Round	10	U
BCS-33	La Cueva (La Partida)	24.532	-110.383	B	1	Year-Round	U	U
BCS-34	Punta Coyote	24.710	-110.700	A	2	8 Months	2	No
BCS-35	El Portugues	24.757	-110.690	A	2	Sep-Apr	2-3	Yes
BCS-36	El Pardito	24.858	-110.586	A	1	Year-Round	4-5	Yes
BCS-37	San Evaristo	24.915	-110.714	B	1	Year-Round	9-20	Yes
BCS-38	La Palma Sola	24.933	-110.633	B	2	6 Months	6	U
BCS-39	Nopolo	24.995	-110.758	A	1	Year-Round	7	U
BCS-40	La Curva de Punta Alta	25.009	-110.759	A	1	Year-Round	3	U
BCS-41	Punta Alta	25.012	-110.759	U	1	Year-Round	5-6	No
BCS-42	Los Burros	25.049	-110.825	A	1	Year-Round	2	U

fishing camps and a diverse variety of organisms including teleosts, squids, and shrimps were often targeted from vessels in the same camp. An influx of fishermen, particularly from the state of Chiapas, immigrated to some camps in Baja California Sur to target large sharks and pelagic rays during summer and autumn. Elasmobranchs landed in remote locations were typically filleted, salted, and dried as a method of preservation and sold for local (Baja California Sur) consumption. Elasmobranchs were also directly consumed within fishing camps and were partially relied upon as a component of subsistence fisheries. Buyers often traveled to select camps to purchase salted or fresh elasmobranchs directly from the fishermen. Typical ex–vessel prices were similar for

Table 1. continued.

Camp Code	Camp Name	Latitude	Longitude	Type	Perm.	Active	#Pangas	Elasmo.
BCS-43	Timbabichi	25.264	-110.947	A	1	Year-Round	5	No
BCS-44	Agua Verde	25.522	-111.068	B	1	Year-Round	4-10	Yes
BCS-45	Isla Catalina, Punta Sur	25.613	-110.788	A	2	Jul-Apr	0	U
BCS-46	Isla Monserrat	25.707	-111.044	A	U	U	U	U
BCS-47	Ensenada Blanca	25.732	-111.255	B	1	Year-Round	5-13	Yes
BCS-48	Ligui	25.749	-111.266	B	1	Year-Round	0-9	No
BCS-49	Puerto Escondido	25.818	-111.312	C	2	U	0	U
BCS-50	Juncalito	25.843	-111.341	B	1	Year-Round	2-15	Yes
BCS-51	Ensenada Amarilla-Rincon	25.867	-111.183	A	2	5 Months	2	U
BCS-52	Col. Zaragoza	25.883	-111.347	C	1	Year-Round	9	U
BCS-53	Nopolo II	25.939	-111.358	C	1	Year-Round	0	U
BCS-54	Loreto	26.024	-111.343	C	1	Year-Round	25-200	Yes
BCS-55	Puerto Balandra	26.022	-111.164	A	2	11 Months	0-5	Yes
BCS-56	Ensenadita	26.121	-111.290	A	2	U	2	Yes
BCS-57	San Bruno	26.226	-111.386	B	1	Year-Round	0-125	U
BCS-58	San Juanico	26.414	-111.450	B	2	3 Months	8	Yes
BCS-59	Palo San Juan	26.457	-111.472	U	U	U	3	U
BCS-60	El Manglito	26.553	-111.764	A	2	4-6 Months	2-6	Yes
BCS-61	San Nicolas	26.559	-111.557	B	1	Year-Round	2-14	Yes
BCS-62	El Sauce	26.558	-111.567	A	1	Year-Round	2-3	Yes
BCS-63	El Cardancito	26.566	-111.577	A	1	Year-Round	7	Yes
BCS-64	La Huertita	26.589	-111.786	U	1	Year-Round	1-5	Yes
BCS-65	La Ramadita	26.586	-111.573	B	1	Year-Round	7-16	Yes
BCS-66	Requeson	26.635	-111.826	A	2	U	2-5	U
BCS-67	El Frijol	26.650	-111.831	A	2	3 Months	5	U
BCS-68	Santa Rosa	26.783	-111.667	A	1	Year-Round	2	U
BCS-69	Guadalupe	26.843	-111.844	A	2	U	2	Yes
BCS-70	Los Hornitos	26.874	-111.851	A	1	Year-Round	U	U
BCS-71	Mulege	26.903	-111.959	C	1	Year-Round	4-80	Yes
BCS-72	Cooperativa de los Del Real	27.033	-112.017	A	2	6 Months	5	U
BCS-73	Punta Coloradito	27.060	-111.986	A	1	Year-Round	3	No
BCS-74	San Rafaelito	27.149	-112.123	A	2	U	0-6	U
BCS-75	San Bruno (2)	27.173	-112.169	B	1	Year-Round	10-50	Yes
BCS-76	San Lucas	27.223	-112.220	B	1	Year-Round	4-120	Yes
BCS-77	Santa Rosalia	27.328	-112.259	C	1	Year-Round	8-450	Yes
BCS-78	Santa Maria	27.429	-112.326	B	1	Year-Round	0-15	Yes
BCS-79	Punta la Reforma	27.583	-112.414	A	U	U	0	U
BCS-80	La Reforma	27.595	-112.444	A	U	U	0	U
BCS-81	Santana	27.673	-112.608	B	1	Year-Round	4-8	Yes
BCS-82	La Trinidad	27.829	-112.729	A	2	U	0	U
BCS-83	Mojon	27.905	-112.775	A	2	U	0	Yes

teleosts and large sharks ($10–$20(MX)/kg). However, small sharks and rays were sold for considerably lower prices (≤ $5(MX)/kg). Overall, markets for elasmobranchs were primarily associated with Baja California and Baja California Sur cities (e.g., Ensenada, La Paz, Loreto, Los Cabos), but also included Mexico City and the US. Skins and jaws of some sharks (e.g., silky shark, *Carcharhinus falciformis*) were occasionally retained and sold. At sites with more infrastructure, sharks and rays were typically dressed and sold fresh to local buyers or cooperatives.

Among the 96 sampled vessels for which gear type and set (e.g., bottom, surface) details were available, bottom set gillnets were found to be the most common fishing method (38.5%) with surface set longlines observed only slightly less frequently (31.3%). However, a diverse range of gear was employed among the sampled vessels. Bottom set

Table 2. Seasonal and total catch composition of shark, skate, and ray landings sampled from artisanal vessels targeting elasmobranchs in Baja California Sur during 1998-1999. Number of vessels sampled per season = Spring (n = 74), Summer (n = 8), Autumn (n = 21), and Winter (n = 28). n = number of individuals, % = percentage of elasmobranch landings. No survey was conducted during summer 1998.

		Spring		Summer		Autumn		Winter		Total	
Higher Taxon	Lowest Possible Taxon	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Shark	*Alopias pelagicus*	4	0.9	7	6.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	11	1.1
	Alopias superciliosus	2	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.2
	Carcharhinidae	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.4	1	0.1
	Carcharhinus falciformis	9	2.1	0	0.0	25	12.6	2	0.8	36	3.7
	Carcharhinus galapagensis	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.1
	Carcharhinus limbatus	6	1.4	8	7.6	0	0.0	4	1.7	18	1.9
	Carcharhinus longimanus	2	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.2
	Carcharhinus obscurus	2	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.2
	Carcharhinus porosus	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.1
	Echinorhinus cookei	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.1
	Galeocerdo cuvier	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.5	0	0.0	2	0.2
	Isurus oxyrinchus	25	5.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	13	5.4	38	3.9
	Mustelus spp.	14	3.3	0	0.0	5	2.5	5	2.1	24	2.5
	Nasolamia velox	0	0.0	57	54.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	57	5.9
	Negaprion brevirostris	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	1.5	0	0.0	3	0.3
	Prionace glauca	83	19.4	3	2.9	1	0.5	24	9.9	111	11.4
	Rhizoprionodon longurio	103	24.1	0	0.0	6	3.0	1	0.4	110	11.3
	Sphyrna lewini	21	4.9	0	0.0	56	28.3	71	29.3	148	15.2
	Sphyrna zygaena	10	2.3	0	0.0	2	1.0	0	0.0	12	1.2
	Squatina californica	25	5.9	0	0.0	64	32.3	24	9.9	113	11.6
	Subtotal	**308**	**72.1**	**75**	**71.4**	**165**	**83.3**	**145**	**59.9**	**693**	**71.3**
Skate	*Raja velezi*	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.8	2	0.2
	Subtotal	**0**	**0.0**	**0**	**0.0**	**0**	**0.0**	**2**	0.8	**2**	**0.2**
Ray											
	Dasyatis dipterura	8	1.9	2	1.9	2	1.0	21	8.7	33	3.4
	Dasyatis longa	14	3.3	1	1.0	1	0.5	4	1.7	20	2.1
	Gymnura spp.	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	33	13.6	33	3.4
	Manta birostris	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.1
	Mobula japanica	22	5.2	4	3.8	0	0.0	3	1.2	29	3.0
	Mobula munkiana	65	15.2	3	2.9	0	0.0	16	6.6	84	8.6
	Mobula spp.	1	0.2	0	0.0	2	1.0	0	0.0	3	0.3
	Mobula thurstoni	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	6	2.5	6	0.6
	Myliobatis californica	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.0	1	0.4	3	0.3
	Myliobatis longirostris	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	6	2.5	7	0.7
	Narcine entemedor	2	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.4	3	0.3
	Pteroplatytrygon violacea	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.1
	Rhinobatos glaucostigma	0	0.0	0	0.0	7	3.5	0	0.0	7	0.7
	Rhinobatos leucorhynchus	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.1
	Rhinobatos productus	2	0.5	16	15.2	1	0.5	0	0.0	19	2.0
	Rhinobatos spp.	0	0.0	0	0.0	9	4.5	0	0.0	9	0.9
	Rhinoptera steindachneri	0	0.0	0	0.0	7	3.5	1	0.4	8	0.8
	Urobatis halleri	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.1
	Urobatis maculatus	2	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.2
	Zapteryx exasperata	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	1.2	3	0.3
	Subtotal	**119**	**27.9**	**26**	**24.8**	**33**	**16.7**	**95**	**39.3**	**273**	**28.1**
Batoid	Unidentified	0	0.0	4	3.8	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4	0.4
	Subtotal	**0**	**0.0**	**4**	**3.8**	**0**	**0.0**	**0.0**	**0.0**	**4**	**0.4**
	Total	**427**	**100.0**	**105**	**100.0**	**198**	**100.0**	**242**	**100.0**	**972**	**100.0**

longlines (2.1%), vertically set longlines (18.8%), surface set gillnets (7.8%), and gillnets set in the water column (2.1%) were also used to target elasmobranchs. Gear was typically soaked for 24 hours before retrieval. Vessels often set two or more nets and occasionally used mixed gear types, such as traps and bottomset gillnets, during the same fishing trip. Handlines were often used as a secondary gear to target multiple species, including small sharks and occasionally rays. Crews usually consisted of two individuals, but groups of 3 and 4 were also observed.

During 1998–1999, 972 specimens were recorded from directed elasmobranch fishery landings in Baja California Sur, corresponding to at least 19 shark, 1 skate, and 18 ray species (Table 2). The majority of the documented specimens were sharks (71.3%). The scalloped hammerhead, *Sphyrna lewini*, was the most frequently observed species (15.2%). However, three other species were similarly represented within the overall catch composition, the: blue shark, *Prionace glauca* (11.4%), Pacific sharpnose shark, *Rhizoprionodon longurio* (11.3%), and Pacific angelshark, *Squatina californica* (11.6%). Rays contributed 28.1% of the sampled landings and skates (i.e., rasptail skate, *Raja*

velezi) represented a minor component of the overall catch (0.2%). The pygmy devilray, *Mobula munkiana*, was the most commonly recorded batoid, comprising 8.6% of the total landings.

Although the principal species varied, sharks numerically dominated landings during all seasons. The relative proportion of shark landings was least during winter (59.9%) and greatest during autumn (83.3%). *Rhizoprionodon longurio* (24.1%), *P. glauca* (19.4%), and *M. munkiana* were the primary species landed during spring. Among the limited number of winter landings, more than half the observed specimens were whitenose shark, *Nasolamia velox* (54.3%). Autumn landings were dominated by three shark species, *S. californica* (32.3%) *S. lewini* (28.3%), and *C. falciformis* (12.6%). *Sphyrna lewini* (29.3%) specimens comprised the greatest proportion of observed winter landings, with butterfly rays, *Gymnura* spp., *S. californica*, *P. glauca*, and the diamond stingray, *Dasyatis dipterura*, of comparable lesser abundance (8.7–13.6%).

Fishing effort was often opportunistic and directed toward multiple teleost and/or elasmobranch taxa. At least 20 species and 10 higher taxa of teleosts were recorded opportunistically from artisanal elasmobranch landings. Mackerels (Scombridae, $n = 4$) and sea basses (Serranidae, $n = 4$) were the most speciose teleost families in landings. Finescale triggerfish (*Balistes polylepis*) were frequently taken in association with demersal ray species and *S. californica* during all seasons, and were occasionally targeted using handlines after gillnets were set or retrieved. Billfishes (Istiophoridae) and dolphinfish (*Coryphaena hippurus*) were noted among landings from pelagic gillnet and longline fisheries.

Biological Information

A total of 56 *N. velox* was directly examined from artisanal fishery landings (Table 3, Figure 2a). The smallest and largest specimens were females, ranging from 66–121 cm stretched total length (STL). Average male size (82.1 ± 9.6 cm STL) was significantly less than that of females (92.4 ± 13.4 cm STL) ($t = 3.292$, $P = 0.002$). The number of females ($n = 29$) and males ($n = 27$) recorded from the landings did not depart significantly from a predicted sex ratio of 1:1 ($\chi^2_{0.05,1} = 0.018$, $P = 0.897$). The majority of inspected male specimens were juveniles (69–100 cm STL, $n = 26$), but adults of 91 cm STL and 105 cm STL were documented. Female maturity was not assessed for this species.

Sampled landings of *P. glauca* were dominated by males, representing 73.9% of the total (Table 3, Figure 2b). Specimens ranged from 133–275 cm STL, and average size of males (199.1 ± 22.5 cm STL) and females (201.7 ± 23.0 cm STL) was similar within the landings ($t = 0.4901$, $P = 0.625$). The observed sex ratio indicated a significant departure from a 1:1 relationship ($\chi^2_{0.05,1} = 20.098$, $P < 0.001$). Ten adult female *P. glauca* measuring 197–230 cm STL were assessed for maturity during February and early March of 1999. All were adults, with nine gravid individuals carrying 3–30 (17.9 ± 11.9 embryos/individual) embryos of 8–41 cm STL (29.3 ± 7.1 cm STL). A juvenile male of 153 cm STL was documented, but all those ≥ 158 cm STL were mature ($n = 44$).

A limited size range of *S. lewini* was recorded among fishery landings, with catches consisting primarily of relatively small individuals (Table 3, Figure 2c). The 84 examined specimens ranged from 77–114 cm STL. The majority of sampled specimens were < 95 cm STL. Mean female (88.1 ± 5.4 cm STL) and male (88.8 ± 5.6 cm STL) sizes did not differ significantly ($t = 1.66$, $P = 0.671$). Likewise, the proportion of sexes was not significantly different from a 1:1 ratio ($\chi^2_{0.05,1} = 0.964$, $P = 0.353$). All inspected male (77–97 cm STL, $n = 50$) and female (81–114 cm STL, $n = 47$) individuals were juveniles.

Table 3. Size composition of elasmobranchs sampled from artisanal fishery landings in Baja California Sur during 1998-1999. Only specimens identified to species are included. DW = disc width; PCL = precaudal length; STL = stretched total length; TL = total length; TL* = estimated total length.

Elasmobranch Group	Species	Sex	n	Measurement (cm)	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	±1 SD
Shark	*Carcharhinus falciformis*	F	19	PCL	122	162	144.2	11.3
		M	16	PCL	95	189	140.5	20.8
	Isurus oxyrinchus	F	17	STL	110	268	166.4	40.1
		M	17	STL	92	253	178.6	44.0
	Nasolamia velox	F	29	STL	66	121	92.4	13.4
		M	27	STL	69	105	82.1	9.6
	Negaprion brevirostris	F	3	STL	119	128	122.3	4.9
	Prionace glauca	F	24	STL	141	230	201.7	23.0
		M	68	STL	133	275	199.1	22.5
	Rhizoprionodon longurio	F	26	STL	69	118	105.2	14.7
		M	19	STL	65	110	95.0	13.8
	Sphyrna lewini	F	37	STL	77	97	88.1	5.4
		M	47	STL	81	114	88.8	5.6
	Sphyrna zygaena	F	4	STL	204	262	242.8	18.5
		M	1	STL	224	224		
	Squatina californica	F	36	TL	62	93	77.2	5.9
		M	31	TL	68	89	77.5	5.5
Batoid	*Dasyatis dipterura*	F	7	DW	41	94	57.3	21.2
		M	6	DW	46	58	49.7	4.4
	Dasyatis longa	F	6	DW	50	118	76.8	31.2
		M	9	DW	57	96	77.0	12.2
	Pteroplatytrygon violacea	F	1	DW	67	67		
	Mobula japanica	F	13	DW	132	233	189.8	35.3
		M	8	DW	132	306	209.0	47.9
	Mobula munkiana	F	20	DW	62	107	86.5	16.6
		M	37	DW	64	108	91.9	14.1
	Mobula thurstoni	F	4	DW	93	170	122.8	34.7
		M	2	DW	102	156	129.0	38.2
	Narcine entemedor	F	4	STL	56	74	63.5	8.2
	Raja velezi	F	2	DW	62	66	64.0	2.8
	Raja velezi	F	2	TL*	80	85	82.7	3.1

The 36 female and 31 male *S. californica* examined from Baja California Sur artisanal fishery landings ranged from 62–93 cm total length (TL), with females representing the largest and smallest specimens (Table 3, Figure 2d). Mean sizes of female (77.2 ± 5.9 cm TL) and male (77.5 ± 5.5 cm TL) individuals did not differ significantly ($t = -0.199$, $P = 0.843$). No significant difference was detected in the proportion of females to males ($\chi^2_{0.05,1} = 0.239$, $P = 0.653$). Adult females of 85 cm TL and 93 cm TL were observed, and a 86 cm TL female landed during January, 1998 contained 5 embryos. Juvenile females of 77–86 cm TL were also noted. Among males, adults measured 69–89 cm TL ($n = 7$), whereas juveniles ranged from 68–79 cm TL ($n = 4$).

A broad size range of *M. munkiana* (62–108 cm DW) was observed among fishery landings (Table 3, Figure 3). The average size of males (91.9 ± 14.1 cm DW) was larger but did not significantly differ from that of females (86.5 ± 16.6 cm DW) ($t = -1.305$, $P = 0.197$). Males of 100–105 cm DW comprised the most common size class. The ratio of females ($n = 20$) to males ($n = 37$) differed significantly from a predicted sex ratio of 1:1 ($\chi^2_{0.05,1} = 4.491$, $P = 0.036$).

Discussion

More than half (56.5%) of all artisanal fishing sites documented in the Gulf of California during 1998–1999 were located in Baja California Sur (Bizzarro et al. 2007a).

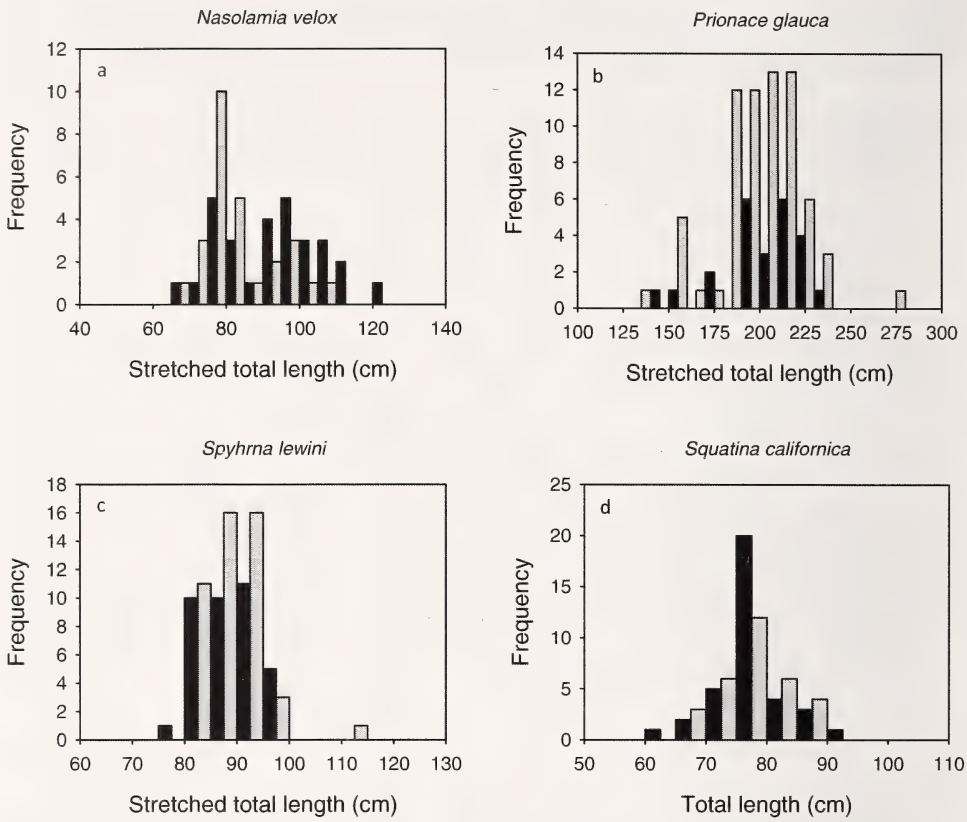

Fig. 2. Size compositions of the primary shark species sampled from artisanal fishery landings in Baja California Sur during 1998–1999: (**a**) female (n = 29) and male (n = 27) whitenose sharks, *Nasolamia velox*, (**b**) female (n = 24) and male (n = 68) blue sharks, *Prionace glauca*, (**c**) female (n = 37) and male (n = 47) scalloped hammerheads, *Sphyrna lewini*, and (**d**) female (n = 36) and male (n = 31) Pacific angel sharks, *Squatina californica*. Females are depicted in black, males in grey.

Directed elasmobranch fishing activities were extensive, but artisanal fisheries were diverse and highly opportunistic. Therefore, sites in eastern Baja California Sur that exclusively targeted elasmobranchs were scarce. In addition, survey efforts were insufficient to adequately document the activities of many artisanal fishing sites. Sharks numerically dominated sampled landings during all seasons, and were primarily represented by similar proportions of large (e.g, *P. glauca*; *I. oxyrinchus*) and small (*R. longurio*, *S. californica*) species. *Mobula munkiana* was the most abundant ray in overall Baja California Sur landings. Large sharks were fished using drift gillnets and assorted longline gear, whereas small demersal sharks and rays were typically fished with bottom set gillnets and longlines.

Teleosts (e.g., Lutjanidae, Serranidae) were the primary targets at most camps, with invertebrates (e.g., squids, Teuthoidea) also commonly targeted. Both teleosts and squids were typically fished with handlines. In addition, many fishermen switched from artisanal fishing to sportfishing periodically, especially in tourist areas. Elasmobranch fishing efforts were greatest for large sharks during summer and autumn among surveyed camps. Rays and small sharks (especially *S. californica*) were fished throughout the year in a relatively small proportion of surveyed camps, with rays targeted more often during

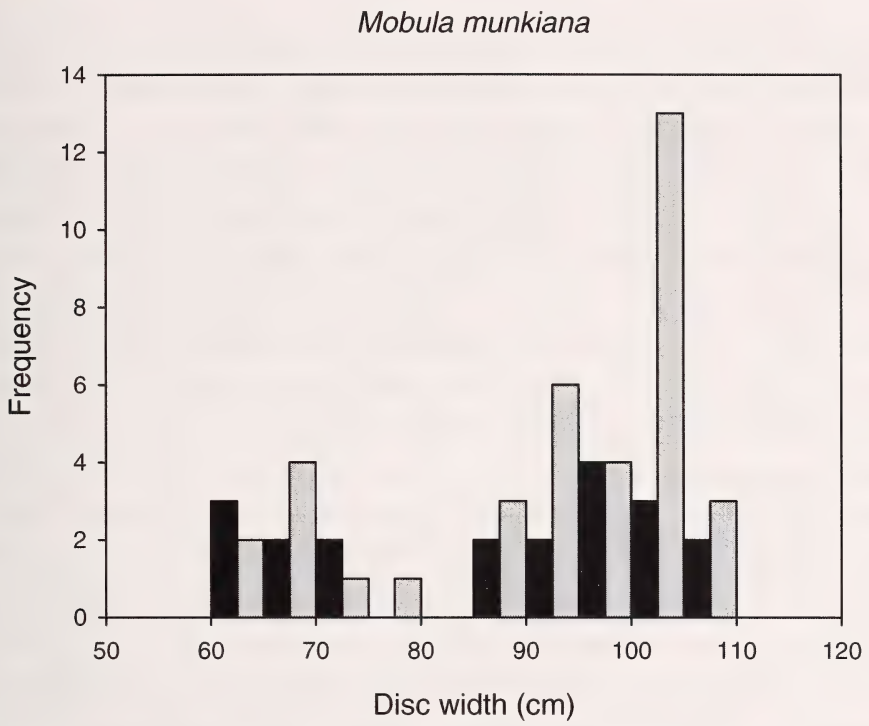

Fig. 3. Size compositions of female (black, $n = 20$) and male (grey, $n = 37$) Munk's devil rays sampled from artisanal fishery landings in Baja California Sur during 1998–1999.

summer and small sharks more often during autumn–spring. The capture of squids (especially *Dosidicus gigas*), a primary commercial fishery in Baja California Sur during the course of this study, was widely noted using handlines during summer and autumn 1999. Artisanal fisheries for sardines or tunas, however, were not observed (CONAPESCA 2003). Because relatively few camps were visited during each season and time spent at each camp was typically less than one day, the extent and activities of artisanal fishing operations in Baja California Sur may not be entirely representative of the actual conditions at the time of survey.

In addition to being artisanal fishery targets, elasmobranchs are common bycatch in the industrial drift net fishery for swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*) and purse seine fishery for yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*) (Mendizábal–Oriza et al. 2000). Both of these pelagic fisheries are substantial in Baja California Sur (CONAPESCA 2003). Rays have also been reported as common bycatch in industrial shrimp fisheries off the Gulf of California coast of Baja California Sur (Fitch and Schultz 1978). Sportfishing is a major industry in Baja California Sur and also represents a considerable source of mortality for large sharks in this region (Castillo–Géniz 1992).

Field efforts were conducted during winter, spring, and autumn of 1998 and during all seasons of 1999. However, sample sizes were probably insufficient to substantiate species composition during all seasons with the possible exception of spring. The total number of pangas targeting elasmobranchs could not be reliably obtained for Baja California Sur because only a small subset of active camps were visited each season, camps were only visited for a brief period of time, and the total number of vessels targeting elasmobranchs

was not consistently recorded at each camp. It is also likely that, because directed elasmobranch fisheries were documented at 82% of adequately surveyed sites, elasmobranch fishing effort may also be extensive among the 34 insufficiently surveyed sites. Based on available data, the greatest elasmobranch effort (n = 23 vessels) was recorded during winter from a large shark fishery (e.g., *I. oxyrinchus*) at Punta Arenas (BCS–15). The greatest overall artisanal fishing effort witnessed in Baja California Sur during this study was directed at squid (*D. gigas*) during September 1999, with 570 vessels participating in the fishery from BCS–76 (n = 120) and BCS–77 (n = 450).

Detailed aspects of some elasmobranch fisheries in Baja California Sur are available for comparison with the results of this study. The artisanal shark fishery in Baja California Sur was summarized by Villavicencio–Garayzar (1996a), but specific camp locations were not provided. Several fishing sites targeting mobulids in the region of Bahía de La Paz, however, have been documented (BCS–14 to BCS–17, BCS–21, BCS–36, BCS–37) (Notarbartolo–di–Sciara 1987; 1988; Villavicencio–Garayzar 1991). Mobulid fisheries were noted at BCS–15 during spring, BCS–35 during spring and summer, and BCS–36 during winter of this survey. Additionally, on June 21, 2001, 12 pangas were observed targeting mobulids (especially *M. munkiana*) with 10–12" drift gillnets or harpoons at Punta Arenas (BCS–15) (Bizzarro unpub.). An active fishery at San Ignacio lagoon was previously confirmed, but not described (Villavicencio–Garayzar and Abitia–Cárdenas 1994; Villavicencio–Garayzar 1996b). An angel shark (*S. californica*) fishery was previously documented at Agua Verde (BCS–44; Villavicencio–Garayzar 1996b) and remained active, at least during winter months, of 1998–1999. Other elasmobranch fishing sites were previously reported from the mainland or islands associated with Bahía de La Paz, most of which were inactive or not documented during this study (Klimley and Nelson 1981; Mariano–Meléndez and Villavicencio–Garayzar 1998). Artisanal fisheries for elasmobranchs have also been reported from the Pacific coast of Baja California Sur, with large sharks (e.g., *C. falciformis*, *P. glauca*, *I. oxyrinchus*) targeted at Las Barranchas, Punta Belcher, and Punta Lobos (Hoyos–Padilla 2003; Ribot–Carballal et al. 2005) and rays targeted at Puerto Viejo and other camps in Bahía Almejas (Villavicencio–Garayzar 1995; Bizzarro et al. 2007b; Smith et al. 2007).

Because rather few specimens were sampled in Baja California Sur, reliable inferences regarding the fauna of this region are limited. Overall, species richness was equivalent between sharks and batoids and diversity was considerable, with 38 species documented. Sampling was conducted during highly variable interannual oceanic conditions (Schwing et al. 2002), which probably served to accentuate typical regional elasmobranch diversity. The elasmobranch fauna observed in landings was more tropical in origin than those of either Baja California (Smith et al. 2009) or Sonora (Bizzarro et al. 2009). It also contained a comparatively greater number of oceanic species (e.g., pelagic stingray, *Pteroplatytrygon violacea*, oceanic whitetip shark, *C. longimanus*) and large coastal and pelagic sharks.

Although an equal number of shark and ray species were documented, sharks were far more important to the fishery. This observation was supported by official fishery statistics, as sharks constituted 73.7% of reported landings during 1998–2003 (CONAPESCA 2003), and was in contrast to the situation documented in Baja California (Smith et al. 2009) or Sonora (Bizzarro et al. 2009). Seasonal migrations of large pelagic sharks to the waters off southern Baja California Sur have historically supported substantial fisheries and may be one of the primary reasons for this trend (Villavicencio–Garayzar 1996a). The coastal geography of Baja California Sur may also not be ideal for

the establishment of ray fisheries. Fisheries for rays are typically centered in embayments and other insular waters, where rays tend to aggregate for breeding or feeding purposes (Bizzarro 2005; Bizzarro et al. 2009). These habitats are relatively sparse, however, along the mountainous Gulf coast of Baja California Sur. The two primary embayments on the Pacific coast of Baja California Sur, Bahía Almejas and Bahía Sebastian Vizcaino, have historically supported active ray fisheries (Villavicencio–Garayzar 1995; Bizzarro 2005; L. Castillo–Géniz, Instituto Nacional de Pesca, Ensenada, Mexico, pers. comm.). Fisheries for rays were documented in Bahía La Paz and Bahía Concepción during this study, but were not extensively sampled. Conversely, large shark fisheries near La Paz were sampled with greater relative frequency, which may have biased overall catch composition estimates. Some large shark species that were previously noted in Baja California Sur shark landings (e.g., narrowtooth shark, *C. brachyurus*; great hammerhead, *S. mokarran*; nurse shark, *Ginglymostoma cirratum*) were not observed during this study (Villavicencio–Garayzar 1996a).

The results of this study have contributed substantially to the information on the artisanal elasmobranch fisheries of Baja California Sur, one of Mexico's most productive states in terms of elasmobranch landings. Although sample size was rather limited, a notable diversity of both sharks and rays was evident in landings, with sharks dominating landings during all seasons. The dominance of early life stages in the landings of the dominant species, *S. lewini*, may be a consequence of a relative absence of large, adult size class. Indeed, the large schools of this species that used to seasonally frequent seamounts in the Gulf of California (Klimley and Nelson 1981; Klimley and Butler 1988) are no longer present (J. Bizzarro pers. obs.). A Gulf–wide management plan for this species should be developed as soon as possible to rebuild overfished populations. In addition, the available biological and fishery information provided here and elsewhere should be compiled and used to develop management plans for at least the primary species landed in Baja California Sur. Using the results of this study as a baseline, it is important that additional research is conducted off BCS to determine any changes in catch rates, species, and size composition that may have occurred since 1998–1999. The historic information presented here should be useful for comparison with this and other contemporary studies.

Acknowledgements

We thank students of the Laboratorio de Elasmobranquios, Departmento de Biologia Marina, Universidad Autonoma de Baja California Sur for field and technical assistance. Thanks also to Stori C. Oates for her constructive comments and edits on an earlier version of this manuscript. We greatly appreciate the patience and cooperation of artisanal fishermen throughout the Gulf of California for providing access to their landings and information about their fishing activities. In addition to the generous support of the David and Lucile Packard Foundation, funding for this project was provided by the: National Fish and Wildlife Foundation, Homeland Foundation, JiJi Foundation, California Sea Grant College System, PADI Project AWARE, World Wildlife Fund, Christensen Fund, Moss Landing Marine Laboratories, Mote Marine Laboratory, Instituto Nacional de Pesca, and National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration/National Marine Fisheries Service (to the National Shark Research Consortium).

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Bull. Southern California Acad. Sci.
108(3), 2009, pp. 152–159
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The Reproductive Biology of Two Common Surfzone Associated Sciaenids, Yellowfin Croaker (*Umbrina roncador*) and Spotfin Croaker (*Roncador stearnsii*), from Southern California

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Abstract.—Yellowfin croaker (*Umbrina roncador*) and spotfin croaker (*Roncador stearnsii*) were collected from San Clemente, California from May through September 2006. Both species were analyzed to determine batch fecundity. Yellowfin croaker ovaries were also histologically examined to describe their summer spawning activity. Batch fecundity in spotfin croaker (n = 13) females ranged from 35,169 to 640,703 described by the equations $BF = 1.59E\text{-}07SL^{5.01}$ for length and $BF = 13.51W^{1.60}$ for total body weight. Yellowfin croaker (n = 16) females batch fecundity ranged from 99,259 to 405,967 and was described by the equations $BF = 2.4E\text{-}04SL^{2.02}$ for length or $BF = 0.33W^{0.68}$ for total body weight. Yellowfin croaker spawning was determined to begin by June and end by September.

Introduction

Croakers (Family Sciaenidae) comprise a significant portion of the nearshore ichthyofauna of southern California. Nearshore gill net surveys by Pondella and Allen (2000) reported yellowfin croaker (*Umbrina roncador*) as the most abundant species along the mainland and third most abundant at Santa Catalina Island whereas spotfin croaker (*Roncador stearnsii*) was not among the 25 most abundant species in either area. Generally, the greatest localized concentrations of both species occur in less than eight meters of water, typically just outside the surf zone along southern California beaches south of the Los Angeles/Long Beach Harbor complex (O'Brien and Oliphant 2001; Valle and Oliphant 2001). Yellowfin croaker nearshore abundances are strongly correlated with sea surface temperature, both inter- and intra-annually, with abundance typically peaking during the summer months (Pondella et al. 2008). These authors suggested that these peak summer abundances may be related to reproductive activities as gonosomatic indices (GSI) for yellowfin croaker peaked from June through August. Similar analyses of spotfin croaker have not been published. Despite their prevalence in southern California little information exists on the reproductive biology of either species. Such knowledge is needed for the successful management of the recreational fishery.

Fecundity, batch or total, is undocumented for most southern California sciaenids with the exception of white croaker and queenfish (Love et al. 1984; DeMartini and Fountain 1981), but is available for some of the more valuable commercial fisheries in California, such as northern anchovy (*Engraulis mordax*) and Pacific sardine (*Sardinops sagax*) (Hunter and Goldberg 1980; Hill and Crone 2005; Lo et al. 2005; Hill et al. 2006). Availability of reproductive dynamics (fecundity, spawning seasonality, etc.) for northern

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anchovy and Pacific sardine has substantially increased the tools available to fishery managers, namely their use in the development of stock assessments (Hill and Crone 2005; Lo et al. 2005; Hill et al. 2006). The general lack of such basal information further restricts such assessments of yellowfin and spotfin croaker population dynamics. While knowledge of the reproductive parameters are only a portion of the necessary life history metrics needed for stock assessments, the present study was designed to help fill some of these data gaps. The batch fecundity was calculated for each species while the summer spawning cycle was histologically identified for yellowfin croaker. Funding was not available to conduct histological analysis of spotfin croaker.

Materials and Methods

Sample collection.—Both species were collected during monthly impingement surveys at San Onofre Nuclear Generating Station (SONGS) in northern San Diego County, California, following the techniques described in Miller (2007). Individuals were sexed by visual examination of intact gonads, measured to the nearest millimeter (mm) standard length (SL), and weighed to the nearest gram (g). All samples for both species were collected between 10 June to 15 September 2006. A total of 86 yellowfin croaker were collected, 51 female and 35 male, with male lengths ranging from 163–309 mm SL and females 172–340 mm SL. Twenty-six female spotfin croaker were collected with individuals ranging from 202 to 306 mm SL.

Histological analysis of gonadal state.—Gonads were removed from each fish, weighed to the nearest 0.5 g, and preserved in 10% buffered formalin. All fish were larger than 150 mm SL or the size at 50% maturity (Pondella et al. 2008). Yellowfin croaker gonads were dehydrated in an ascending series of ethanol and cleared in toluene. After dehydration, samples were embedded in paraffin and histological sections were cut at 5 μm using a rotary microtome. Sections were mounted on glass slides and stained with Harris hematoxylin followed by eosin counterstain. Slides were evaluated to determine the stage of the spermatogenic cycle in males and the ovarian cycle in females. Female stages were in accordance with Goldberg (1981). Stage 1 (regressed or regressing) was the nonspawning condition consisting mainly of primary oocytes. Stage 2 (previtellogenic) consisted of slightly enlarged vacuolated oocytes. Stage 3 (vitellogenic) was characterized by yolk deposition in progress. Stage 4 (spawning) mature (ripe) oocytes predominate and some postovulatory follicles may be present. Males were characterized as spawning or regressing/inactive.

Gonosomatic index and batch fecundity.—A gonosomatic index (GSI) was derived for each individual of both species by the equation: GSI = (gonad weight × gonad free body weight^{-1}) × 100 (Barbieri et al. 1994). Only female yellowfin croaker with a GSI greater than 3.5% were included in the fecundity analysis based on Pondella et al. (2008). Preliminary data on spotfin croaker GSI indicated that peak spawning occurs from June through August, with GSI values greater than 3.5% (VRG unpub. data[2]). Therefore, spotfin croaker females with a GSI greater than 3.0% were included in the study to ensure complete coverage of spawning females in all size classes available. Ovary analysis was similar to that described by Hunter and Macewicz (1980). For both species, two subsamples of approximately 0.5 g of ovarian tissue per ovary were taken from each fish. Subsamples were taken from the posterior and medial areas of each lobe. A minimum of two independent counts of ripe oocytes (hydrated eggs) from each subsample were made under stereomicroscopy. In instances of high variation, subsamples were recounted. The

[2] VRG: Vantuna Research Group, Occidental College, Los Angeles, CA.

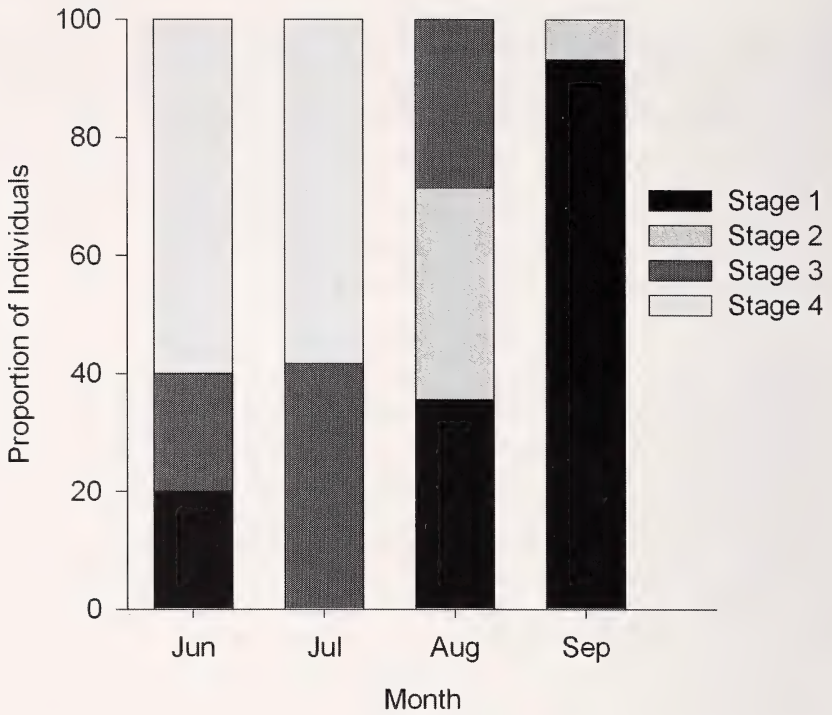

Fig. 1. Distribution of ovarian stage by month for 51 female yellowfin croaker collected during impingement sampling at San Onofre Nuclear Generating Station from June through September 2006.

mean egg count and standard error for each individual fish was calculated and later multiplied by the total gonad weight to estimate the individual batch fecundity. Batch fecundity (BF) was regressed against both standard length and total body weight to determine the relationship between both parameters.

Results

Histological analysis of gonadal state.—Histological analysis recorded peak spawning condition in July as indicated by high frequency of ripe (Stage 4) and near ripe (Stage 3) oocytes (Figure 1). Individuals collected in June also showed a substantial proportion (60%) of actively spawning individuals. No actively spawning females were collected in August, but 28% of the ovaries examined were comprised predominantly by Stage 3 oocytes. Spawning was completed by September with greater than 90% of all individuals in Stage 1 development with primary oocytes. One male with regressing testes was identified from September collections. Bimodal ovaries (spawning and vacuolated modes) were observed in five individuals collected on 24 June.

Batch fecundity analysis.—In yellowfin croaker, batch fecundity ranged from 99,259 to 405,967 ripe oocytes per female. batch fecundity increased with length ($R^2 = 0.45$, $p = 0.005$) as described by the equation $BF = 2.4E\text{-}04SL^{2.0L}$ (Figure 2a). The relationship between total body weight and batch fecundity was similar ($R^2 = 0.49$, $p = .003$) as described by the equation $BF = 0.33W^{0.68}$ (Figure 2b). Batch fecundity in spotfin croaker ranged from 35,169 to 640,703 ripe oocytes per female. Spotfin croaker batch fecundity increased exponentially with body size (SL) following the equation $BF = 2E\text{-}07SL^{5.0109}$ ($R^2 = 0.79$, $p = 0.002$; Figure 3a). Total body weight better predicted batch fecundity in

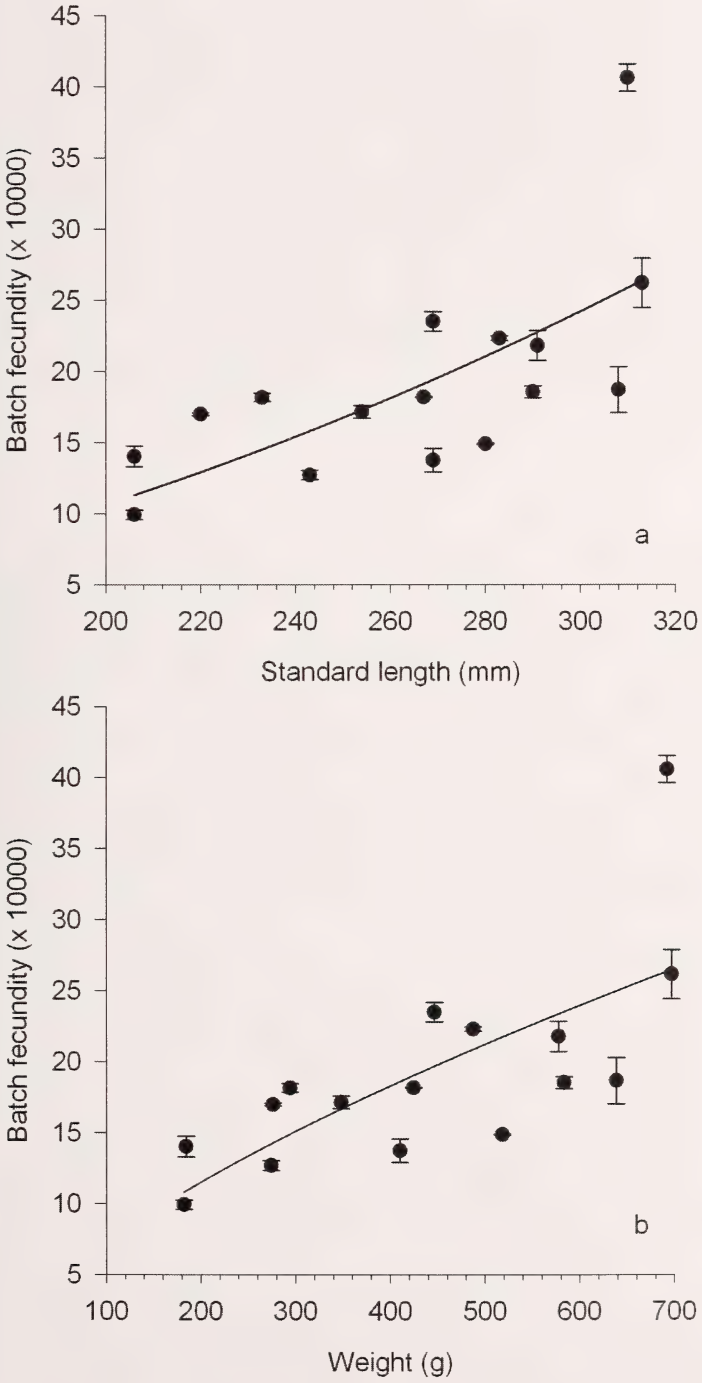

Fig. 2. Mean individual batch fecundity, ±1 standard error, by a)standard length (mm) and b) weight (g) for 16 female yellowfin croaker collected during impingement sampling at San Onofre Nuclear Generating Station from June through August 2006.

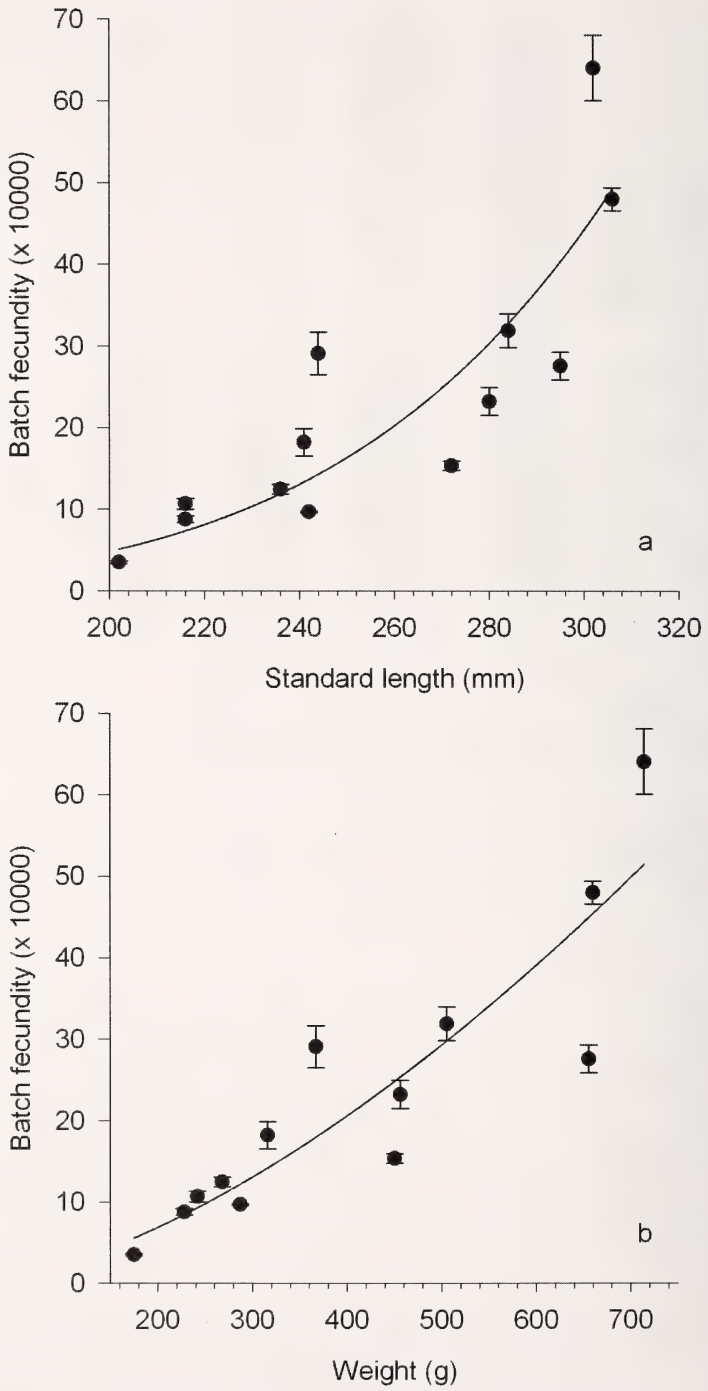

Fig. 3. Mean individual batch fecundity, ±1 standard error, by a) standard length (mm) and b) weight (g) for 13 female spotfin croaker collected during impingement sampling at San Onofre Nuclear Generating Station from June through August 2006.

Table 1. Reported batch fecundity ranges for several sciaenid species and their maximum size as reported on www.fishbase.org. Bold type indicates southern California species.

Species	Fecundity Range	Reference	Max. Size
***Seriphus politus* (Ayers)**	5,000–90,000	DeMartini and Fountain 1981	305 mm TL
***Genyonemus lineatus* (Ayers)**	800–37,200	Love et al. 1984	410 mm TL
Umbrina roncador	99,259–405,967	Current Study	560 mm TL
Roncador stearnsii	35,169–640,703	Current Study	686 mm TL
Cynoscion regalis (Bloch and Schneider)	75,289–517,845	Lowerre-Barbieri et al. 1996	980 mm TL
Cynoscion nebulosus (Cuvier)	102,369–511,859	Nieland et al. 2002	1000 mm TL
Sciaenops ocellatus	160,000–3,270,000	Wilson and Nieland 1994	1550 mm TL
Pogonias cromis	510,000–2,420,000	Nieland and Wilson 1993	1700 mm TL

spotfin croaker ($R^2 = 0.85$, $p < 0.001$) through the equation $BF = 13.511Wt^{1.6032}$ (Figure 3b).

Discussion

Yellowfin croaker and spotfin croaker reproductive patterns were consistent with previous studies of southern California sciaenids (Goldberg 1976; DeMartini and Fountain 1981; Goldberg 1981; Love et al. 1984; Miller et al. 2008; Pondella et al. 2008). With the exception of white croaker, published accounts of the reproductive life history of California sciaenids typically indicate peak spawning activity in summer concurrent with increases in water temperature in the Southern California Bight (Miller et al. 2008; Pondella et al. 2008). Pondella et al. (2008) reported yellowfin croaker abundance at SONGS increased from June to a peak in August, generally corresponding with the spawning period documented by the current study. We cannot, however, rule out the possibility of a more protracted spawning season in yellowfin croaker, as no individuals were collected prior to May in 2006, despite ongoing impingement sampling. Although recorded in all months, spotfin croaker abundance similarly peaks during the summer months (E.F. Miller unpublished data).

Fecundity estimates (batch or total) have only been published for two southern California sciaenids, queenfish (*Seriphus politus*) and white croaker (*Genyonemus lineatus*;DeMartini and Fountain 1981; Love et al. 1984). Estimates are available, however, for several Atlantic and Gulf Coast species (Table 1). As expected, batch fecundities for the southern California species generally reflect a proportional ratio between the maximum size and the maximum batch fecundity. Red drum (*Sciaenops ocellatus*) and black drum (*Pogonias cromis*) collected from the Gulf of Mexico grow to substantially larger sizes than the southern California representatives and exhibit up to an eight-fold higher maximum reported batch fecundities (Nieland and Wilson 1993; Wilson and Nieland 1994).

Unfortunately, little to no information on larval yellowfin croaker and spotfin croaker abundances were available in the primary literature to further illuminate spawning seasonality for either species (Barnett et al. 1984; Walker et al. 1987; McGowen 1993; Moser and Smith 1993). This research was able to describe some of the basal reproductive parameters for two common surf zone associated species, yellowfin croaker and spotfin croaker. Although the sample sizes were small, they were within the range of previous studies (Hunter and Macewicz 1980; DeMartini 1987) and provide a more clear insight into the life history of each species. While reserved for the recreational fishing

community, their populations still face fishery management concerns, especially in a relatively understudied area such as the southern California sandy beach surf zone. Further information on their life history parameters is needed to adequately manage these species. Specifically, the void of information on larval densities and spatial distributions should be addressed.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank P. Tennant of Southern California Edison for his logistical support and L. Ferry-Graham for clearing many hurdles in connection with the funding of this study. This report was prepared as a result of work sponsored by the California Energy Commission (Energy Commission). It does not necessarily represent the views of the Energy Commission, its employees, or the State of California. The Energy Commission, the State of California, its employees, contractors, and subcontractors make no warranty, express or implied, and assume no legal liability for the information in this report; nor does any party represent that the use of this information will not infringe upon privately owned rights. This report has not been approved or disapproved by the Energy Commission nor has the Energy Commission passed upon the accuracy or adequacy of the information in this report.

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Bull. Southern California Acad. Sci.
108(3), 2009, pp. 160–162
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Documentation of Replacement of Native Western Gray Squirrels by Introduced Eastern Fox Squirrels

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Abstract.—The eastern fox squirrel (*Sciurus niger*) was first introduced to Los Angeles in 1904. Since that time, this species has spread throughout many of the urban and suburban areas of Los Angeles, Ventura and Orange Counties. In this paper we document that the eastern fox squirrel can replace the western gray squirrel within a particular habitat in a short period of time.

The eastern fox squirrel *(Sciurus niger)* has generally remained restricted to areas of human habitation throughout southern California since its introduction into Los Angeles in 1904 (Becker and Kimball 1947; King 2004). However, with continued range expansion the fox squirrel has come into contact with the native western gray squirrel (*Sciurus griseus*) in many foothill areas (Hoefler and Harris 1990; Ingles 1954). *Sciurus niger* has also come into contact with populations of *S. griseus* that have become isolated from larger populations due to the establishment of new suburban housing tracts and freeways, and the resulting fragmentation of habitat.

Within the past 30 years, residents of Los Angeles County have noticed a decline in the number and range of western gray squirrels coinciding with an increase in the number of eastern fox squirrels (Byhower 2002; Byhower and Lokitz 2000). Some habitats that contained *S. griseus* in the past now contain only *S. niger*. Although one may want to invoke competitive exclusion for the replacement of *S. griseus* by *S. niger*, replacement is confounded by an increase in suburban development and the fragmentation of the remaining wooded habitat. For example, residential and commercial development in areas such as the Santa Susana Mountains of Los Angeles and Ventura Counties eliminated prime gray squirrel habitat at a rate of approximately 1,400 acres per year up to 1999 (Polakovic 1999).

In this paper we document replacement of *S. griseus* by *S. niger* in a habitat that had not been recently modified. The elimination of *S. griseus* from this area supports but does not confirm the idea of competitive exclusion of *S. griseus* by *S. niger* from certain, but not all, types of habitats. Additional studies would be needed to determine how *S. niger* is capable of replacing *S. griseus* in specific habitats.

The presence of *S. niger* in various areas of Los Angeles, Orange, San Bernardino, and Ventura Counties of southern California was assessed by King (2004) using, among other methods, an online response form (Sue et al. 2002) where people could report the presence of *S. niger*. A report was received May 17, 2005 documenting the first sighting of

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S. niger on the campus of California State Polytechnic University, Pomona in Pomona, CA. The sighting, by author GRS was reported in the main quad area of the campus, adjacent to Building # 8. Since Building # 8 is located near the middle of the campus, *S. niger* could have been present on the southern or western periphery of the campus prior to May 2005. The most likely route of approach by the squirrels to the campus was from the west (see King 2004 for a historical distribution map).

A population of *S. griseus* existed at the University for at least 45 years during the time that author GRS worked at the campus. Although many buildings have been constructed on the campus over the years, very little landscape modification has occurred since 2003. With a documented first occurrence of *S. niger* in the first half of 2005, and follow-up surveys occurring on an irregular basis, we were able to document the fate of *S. griseus* on the campus and establish a general timeline for the fate.

Prior to 2005 *S. griseus* were commonly observed on the main quad area of the campus, near various buildings on campus, in a heavily wooded area adjacent to Kellogg Center West (a major conference center on the campus), and in a heavily wooded area to the west of the center of campus (the Voorhis Ecological Reserve). *Sciurus niger* was initially sighted on an infrequent basis but by 2006 this species was a common sight. While *S. griseus* could be regularly observed on the main quad area in 2005, the species has not been observed on the quad area since 2006. Also, no western gray squirrels were sighted during annual field walks with students in a mammalogy course through the heavily wooded area of the Voorhis Ecological Reserve in September of 2007 and 2008.

Visual surveys around the main campus quad area, the heavily wooded area adjacent to Kellogg Center West, and the heavily wooded area in the Voorhis Ecological Reserve were conducted on 22 separate occasions during January, February, March, April, October, November and December of 2008 and each month January through July of 2009 ($>$ 40 hours of observation time). While many eastern fox squirrels were observed during most surveys, only one western gray squirrel was ever observed during any survey. What appeared to be the same individual was observed in a grove of walnut trees just to the east of Camphor Lane near Kellogg Center West by several students in the mammalogy course during October and November of 2008. A lone western gray squirrel was also observed in the same area in December 2008 and in January, February, June and July of 2009. Based upon these sightings, the population of western gray squirrels appears to have been reduced to a single individual remaining on the campus.

The eastern fox squirrel has been introduced into many western states (Flyger and Gates 1982; Jordan and Hammerson 1996). Within California, introduced fox squirrel colonization is not specific to the Greater Los Angeles Metropolitan Area. For example, *S. niger* were introduced to Golden Gate Park in San Francisco before 1890 (Byrne 1979), to Roeding Park in Fresno in 1900 or 1901 (Storer papers; Lidicker 1991), to Balboa Park in San Diego from the San Diego Zoo in 1920 (Staff Writer 1929), to the campus of the University of California, Berkeley circa 1926 (Boulware 1941), to Mt Diablo in 1960 (Pelonio 2004) and to the city of Bakersfield in 1985 (Sheehey 2004).

While there has been a correlation between the disappearance of *S. griseus* from certain habitats after the appearance of *S. niger* in those habitats (examples, Lacy Park in San Marino, Lanterman Developmental Center in Pomona, a residential area in Altadena adjacent to Eaton Canyon) we report here a documented case, with a timeline, where western gray squirrels have been replaced by eastern fox squirrels at a specific location. While the first sighting of *S. niger* on the campus of California State Polytechnic University, Pomona was in May of 2005, a very significant reduction in observation of *S.*

griseus was evident within 1 year. The virtual elimination of the western gray squirrel from the campus occurred in less than 4 years.

King (2004) studied co-existing populations of *S. niger* and *S. griseus* in San Dimas Canyon Park within the city of San Dimas, CA where the two species have now coexisted for at least 15 years. Although *S. niger* is able to quickly replace *S. griseus* in certain habitats, the two species can coexist within other habitats. In addition to San Dimas Canyon Park the two species coexist at the Bird Sanctuary in Griffith Park, Walnut Creek Park within the City of San Dimas, CA, and the main quad area and a semi-natural area at Pomona College in Claremont, CA.

We thank Mr. Min Chung Sue for development of the Southern California Fox Squirrel Web Site.

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Bull. Southern California Acad. Sci.
108(3), 2009, pp. 163–167
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Research Note

Records of the Pacific Bearded Brotula, *Brotula clarkae*, from Southern California

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The genus *Brotula* (Family: Ophidiidae) is characterized as having a circumtropical and subtropical marine distribution (Hubbs 1944; Nielsen et al. 1999). Two species are known from the Eastern Pacific: Fore-spotted Brotula (*Brotula ordwayi* Hildebrand & Barton, 1949) and Pacific Bearded Brotula (*Brotula clarkae* Hubbs, 1944). Of the two species, *Brotula clarkae* is more common and is known from higher, more subtropical latitudes in both hemispheres. Recently, *Brotula flaviviridis* was described by Greenfield (2005) from the Fiji Islands; however, this species appears to be a Fiji archipelago endemic or perhaps a species of limited distribution in the Central Pacific. Love et al. (2005) noted that the Pacific Bearded Brotula is found in the Eastern Tropical Pacific from Cabo San Lazaro, Baja California Sur to Paita, Peru, including Gulf of California, at depths of 1–645 m.

On 24 July 2001, fishes from the southern California Spot Prawn (*Pandalus platyceros*) trap fishery were collected by the California Department of Fish and Game for ongoing studies concerning related by-catch. A sample, consisting of various rockfishes (*Sebastes* spp.) and a large Spotted Cusk-eel (*Chilara taylori*), was collected from the fishing vessel *Stephanie D.* The traps for this sample were set about eight nautical miles (14.8 km) west of Point Loma, San Diego County, lat 33°09.3′ N, long 117°26.7′ W, in ca. 122 fathoms (223 m). The entire sample was sent to the senior author (RNL) for confirmation and documentation. Upon examination of these fishes, it was apparent that the "Spotted Cusk-eel" was not this species but was in fact a member of the genus *Brotula* and was identified specifically as *B. clarkae*. This specimen (Fig. 1) is deposited in the Department of Ichthyology at California Academy of Sciences (CAS uncatalogued) and tissue resides in the Marine Vertebrate Collection, Scripps Institution of Oceanography (SIO 02-95).

On 6 March 2003 a second specimen of *Brotula* was collected by the third author (WP), of the Los Angeles County Sanitation Districts, off the Palos Verdes Shelf, Los Angeles County, lat 33°41.8′ N, long 118°20.0′ W, at Station T5, from 65 m. During recovery and routine maintenance of a thermister array by the research vessel *Ocean Sentinel*, the specimen was found in the steel base of the array. The fish did not appear to be any of the expected locally caught species and was later identified as *Brotula clarkae*. This specimen is catalogued in the Marine Vertebrate Collection as SIO 07-67 (Fig. 2).

Morphometric and meristic information on these two Californian specimens are included in Table 1. Both fish are typical *Brotula clarkae* and are easily differentiated from *B. ordwayi* by pattern of coloration, counts, and morphometry (Hildebrand and

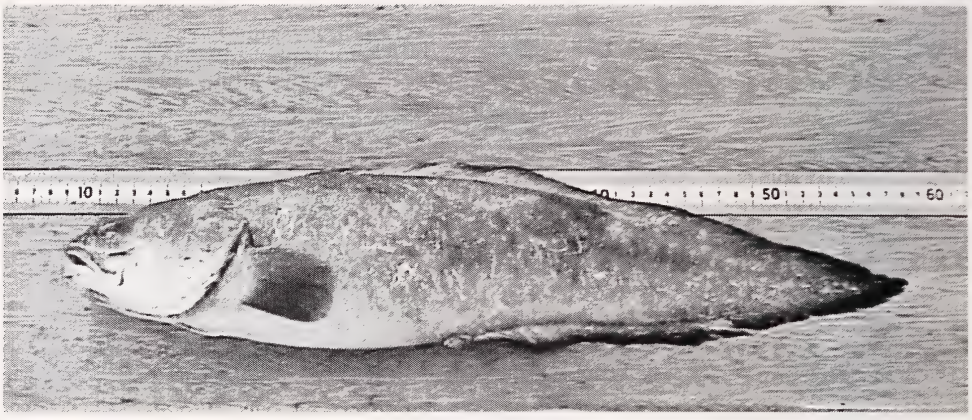

Fig. 1. Photograph of Pacific Bearded Brotula collected on 24 July 2001 off Point Loma, San Diego County by F/V Stephanie D. CAS uncatalogued.

Barton 1949; Allen and Robertson 1994). In a review of the Central Eastern Pacific (or Eastern Tropical Pacific) Ophidiidae (Lea 1995), the genus *Brotula* was considered to belong in the family Brotulidae and as a result, the two Eastern Pacific species were not included in this summary. Nielsen et al. (1999), in their treatment of ophidiiform fishes of the world, included the genus *Brotula* within the family Ophidiidae as one of 4 subfamilies (Brotulinae, Brotulotaeniinae, Ophidiinae, and Neobythitinae). Most current workers follow this system of classification (e.g. Nelson 2006). Nonetheless, the interrelationships of ophidiiform fishes, in a number of cases, are problematic.

The Pacific Bearded Brotula differs from other species of ophidiiform fishes known from California in having barbels present on the snout and chin (6 on snout and 6 on chin; characteristic of genus *Brotula*). Barbels are absent on other California ophidiiform fishes. The pelvic fins of *Brotula*, as 2 elongate rays, are inserted anteriorly on the body at about the level of the preopercle, well behind the eye. The pelvic fins, as a pair of filamentous rays, in *Chilara taylori* and *Ophidion scrippsae* (Basketweave Cusk-eel) (the two ophidiids with which it would most likely be confused), are inserted on the isthmus vertically under the eye. A list of fishes of the Order Ophidiiformes known from California waters is given in Table 2.

The oceanic climate of the eastern North Pacific was cold during the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) cold regime of the 1960s and 1970s to 1981, very warm during the 1982–84 El Niño, warm during the PDO warm regime from 1985 to the cool La Niña of 1988–89, warm during the warm regime period of 1990–98 (the warmest of the century

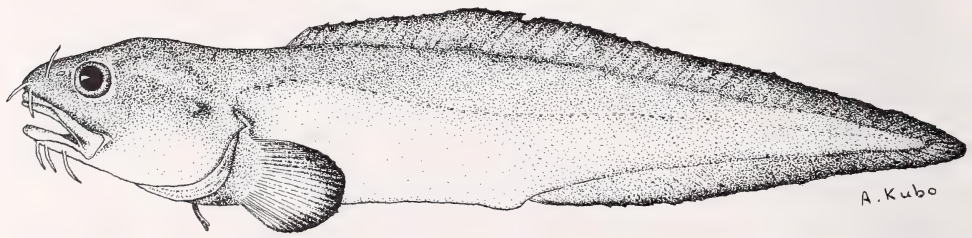

Fig. 2. Line drawing of Pacific Bearded Brotula collected on 6 March 2003 on the Palos Verdes Shelf, Los Angeles County. SIO 07-67. Drawing by Atshuhiro Kubo.

Table 1. Morphometric and meristic data for the two California *Brotula clarkae*.

Character State	CAS uncatalogued[1]		SIO 07-67	
Dorsal fin	–		ca.106	
Anal Fin	–		87	
Vertebrae	–		15 + 40 = 55	
Pectoral fin[2]	ca. 27		—	
Gill Rakers	3 developed rakers on lower limb		5 + 3,15 = 23[3]	
	mm	Percent SL	mm	Percent SL
Standard Length	465		396	
Total Length	481	–	422	–
Weight (g.)	937.8	–	–	–
Head Length	113.6	24.4	98.6	24.9
Orbit Length	18.0	3.9	15.4	3.9
Snout Length	23.6	5.1	21.5	5.4
Post-orbital Length	–	–	60.2	15.2
Interorbital Width (fleshy)	18.5	4.0	16.3	4.1
Maxilla Length	52.7	11.3	46.0	11.6
Pectoral Fin Length	49.4	10.6	43.0	10.9
Pelvic Fin Length	39.0	8.4	25.9	6.5
Body Depth (@ D origin)	–	–	80.0	20.2
Body D. (@ A origin)	86.9	18.7	72.3	18.3
Body D. (@ Nape)	–	–	64.4	16.3
Pre-dorsal Length	–	–	108.2	27.3
Pre-anal Length	233.3	50.2	210	53.0
Pre-pectoral Length	–	–	69.9	17.7
Pre-pelvic Length	–	–	103.1	26.0
Gill Raker L. (@ angle)	12.1	2.6	7.2	1.8
Lateral Line Length	–	–	370	93.4

[1] The CAS specimen was placed in temporary storage during the recent renovation of the Academy and the move of the ichthyological collection to the Howard Street location. The Academy has now returned to Golden Gate Park but the specimen has not as yet been located.

[2] The pectoral fin is extremely fleshy in *Brotula* and a count without radiograph or staining is approximate.

[3] Formulae indicates 5 rudimentary rakers on upper limb plus 3 developed rakers followed by 15 rudimentary rakers on lower limb.

Table 2. A list of fishes of the Order Ophidiiformes known from California waters.

Family Ophidiidae	
Brotula clarkae Hubbs, 1944	Pacific Bearded Brotula
Chilara taylori (Girard, 1858)	Spotted Cusk-eel
Dicrolene filamentosa Garman, 1899	Threadfin Cusk-eel
Lamprogrammus niger Alcock, 1891	Paperbone Cusk-eel
Ophidion scrippsae (Hubbs, 1916)	Basketweave Cusk-eel
Spectrunculus grandis (Günther, 1877)	Giant Cusk-eel
Family Bythitidae	
Brosphycis marginata (Ayres, 1854)	Red Brotula
Cataetyx rubrirostris Gilbert, 1890	Rubynose Brotula
Grammonus diagrammus (Heller & Snodgrass, 1903)	Purple Brotula

during the 1997–98 El Niño), and cool from 1999 at least through 2005 (Chavez et al. 2003; Goericke et al. 2005). As the Pacific Bearded Brotula has planktonic larvae (Ambrose 1996) and adults were taken in southern California in 2001 and 2003, its dispersal from Baja California Sur or mainland Mexico to southern California may have occurred through larval drift and transport during the 1997–98 El Niño or perhaps during the warm regime of the early 90s preceding this event. A number of Eastern Tropical Pacific species were reported for the first time from California following the 1997–98 El Niño (Lea and Rosenblatt 2000; Allen and Groce 2001a,b; Groce et al. 2001a,b). With the two records listed above, the geographic range of *Brotula clarkae* now extends from off Palos Verdes, California, to Paita, Peru.

Acknowledgements

We thank Paul Reilly of the California Department of Fish and Game for making the San Diego prawn trap fishes available. Atshuhiro Kubo illustrated the fish from the Palos Verdes Shelf. H. J. Walker, Jr., Scripps Institution of Oceanography, and Richard Feeney, Natural History Museum of Los Angeles County, provided radiographs of the Palos Verdes specimen; known to them as the x-rays from hell!

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Taxonomic procedures: Authors are advised to adhere to the taxonomic procedures as outlined in the International Code of Botanical Nomenclature (Lawjouw et al. 1956), the International Code of Nomenclature of Bacteria and Viruses (Buchanan et al. 1958), and the International Code of Zoological Nomenclature (Ride et al. 1985). Special attention should be given to the description of new taxa, designation of holotype, etc. Reference to new taxa in titles and abstracts should be avoided.

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McWilliams, K. L. 1970. Insect mimicry. Academic Press, vii+326 pp.

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